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OF

UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

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THE NOVEMBER COUNCIL MEETING

An Editorial

The C.A.U.T. Council met in Toronto on 18 November 1961. It considered, and defeated, constitutional amendments proposed from U. B. C. These would have had the effect of making the C.A.U.T. an entirely federal body, composed of local associations without any distinction for the individual between membership in a local association and in the C.A.U.T. The Council sympathized with the purpose of the amendments, which was to deal with the problem of fairly low C.A.U.T. membership at some institutions. The Executive and Finance Committee gave notice of an alternative set of amendments, to be considered at the Council meeting in June 1962.

By an amendment proposed from Western Ontario and carried at the November meeting, retired persons and visitors from foreign countries may now become associate members of the C.A.U.T. if they are associate members of a local association entitled to representation on the Council.

The following resolution was passed: ". . . that, when formal application has been received from a staff association for membership in C.A.U.T., a sub-committee be set up to consider the application, that notice of such application be sent by the Executive Secretary to all member associations, giving the name of the chairman of the sub-committee, and that member associations be given at least one full month in which to present any evidence or opinion regarding admission". Notice of an application from Notre Dame University College, Nelson, B.C., appears in this issue.

The President reported progress on the search for financial support for a study of Canadian university government. The Council resolved in favour of a similar appeal for funds "to carry out a detailed examination of existing pension and insurance schemes in Canadian universities, and of the possibility of establishing a plan for pension and other benefits on a national basis". In

this attempt the co-operation of the N. C. C. U. C. and/or of the Canadian Association of University Business Officers is to be sought.

The establishment of a new Tenure Practices Committee was reported. Its members are Professor Maurice Bouchard (Montreal) as chairman, Professor Roger Verschingel (Sir George Williams) and Professor G. L. d'Ombrain (McGill). The formation of another new committee, on sabatical leave, was recommended.

The Council received the following formal reports: from the Executive Secretary on action taken concerning discrimination against women members of faculty (published in the December *Bulletin*); from the Salary Committee (also published in the December *Bulletin*); from the Treasurer; from a committee of the Manitoba local association on academic work-loads; from C.A.U.T. representatives to the National Conference on Adult Education in October 1961 and to the Canadian Teachers' Federation meeting in July 1961.

The Council also set a precedent that deserves to become an unwritten part of the C.A.U.T. constitution; business was finished, and the meeting adjourned, ahead of schedule.

THE NEW ECONOMY SIZE

An Editorial

In 1962 the Bulletin is to appear in six issues rather than four. The change is intended to provide more space, at more frequent intervals, for reports and information from the National Office. One of the functions of the National Office, from its inception, has been to act as a clearing-house for information; and it has been one of the functions of the *Bulletin* to assist in this process.

Like the mimeographed papers issuing from 77 Metcalfe Street, the *Bulletin* is distributed to C.A.U.T. members by the executives of local associations, who

receive copies directly from the printer. This arrangement is sometimes unsatisfactory, but no other appears feasible; the responsibility for local distribution must continue to rest with local executives. With greater use of the *Bulletin* as a channel between the National Office and the general membership, that responsibility becomes greater.

The character of the *Bulletin,* and its relation to the C.A.U.T. and to the Council, remain unchanged. The costs of printing and distributing the *Bulletin,* except in so far as they are met by revenue from advertising, are paid by the C.A.U.T. The *Bulletin* is however not the official voice of the C.A.U.T. That voice is to be found in the Council — in its resolutions, in statements authorized by it or in committee reports which it has adopted. The Council appoints the editor of the *Bulletin,* and may remove him. While in office, he is a totally irresponsible functionary, neither authorized to state the views of the C.A.U.T. nor bound to adhere to them.

The *Bulletin* in six issues, as in four, will continue to be primarily a journal of opinion, which also reports news about the C.A.U.T. Three sorts of material regularly appear. First, there are Council resolutions, committee reports and information from or reports of action by the National Office. These are either clearly identified or (like the notices of faculty positions vacant) involve no expression of opinion. Second, there is editorial comment. This, including all unsigned expressions of opinion, is to be blamed on the editor. Third and most important, there are signed contributions — principally articles, but sometimes letters as well. They express the opinions of their authors. The six-issue *Bulletin* retains these familiar ingredients in much the same proportion as before; it simply offers them in a larger package.

HIGHER EDUCATION: CRISIS AND CONTRADICTION

Raymond Rodgers*

THE TITLE OF NOVEMBER'S National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges was "Canada's Universities in a New Age". Back in 1956 an earlier one had the gloomier title of "Canada's Crisis in Higher Education". The old title might well have been revived in 1961. Our universities are facing what might be called a crisis of contradiction.

The contradiction lies in these facts: (1) Our university teachers are overwhelmingly trained abroad, yet, (2) our curriculae are weak in international and comparative studies. (3) We need to train more university teachers in this country, but, (4) we lack the graduate facilities to do so.

These four themes were heavily emphasized by the majority of speakers during the NCCUC's three-day conference, November 13 to 15. The stage was set by the key-note speech of Dr. Claude Bissell, President of the University of Toronto, when he pointed out that "a great expansion in graduate work is one of our prime necessities" and concluded that our universities "should be the basis for Canadian leadership and a principal means for diffusing Canadian influence."

The most shattering speech was delivered by Dr. Edward F. Sheffield, Research Officer of the Canadian Universities Foundation. If we are to retain a student/teacher ratio of about 13:1 we will have to find 8,000 new teachers and researchers by 1965 and an additional 15,000 by 1970. "Where are they to be found?", asked Sheffield. He gave no direct answer. But he did show where about three-quarters of the staff additions of 1956-1958 came from:

- 21 per cent entered our faculties directly from American universities, where they had been either students or teachers. 9 per cent entered from British universities. But only 4 per cent came from institutions on the European continent. Figures for the rest of the world are not available but they amount to a mere handful.
- 22 per cent entered teaching and research from the student body of Canadian universities. The majority did so with only a B.A. or M.A. as their qualification for teaching.

*Dr. Rogers was, at the time of the conference this article reports on, the Ottawa representative of *Saturday Night*.

● 27 per cent entered from non-university education, the civil and military services, and business — in that order. Of these, the great majority may have also received their degrees abroad. Dr. J. F. Leddy of the University of Saskatchewan told the conference that he had checked the list of degrees held by members of his own college: "I found that two-thirds of them had one or more degrees taken at a foreign university. A superficial examination of the calendars of a number of other Canadian universities indicates a similar proportion there as well."

Leddy went on to suggest that "This remarkable circumstance deserves to be emphasized, for I am unable to think of another country in which a comparable situation exists." The consequence of the situation is that problems tend to be seen through a filter of American — and to a lesser extent, British — concepts. This is inevitable when the majority of university-educated Canadians either take graduate studies abroad, or undergraduate studies in Canada from persons trained abroad.

Unfortunately, "abroad" does not mean in Common Market countries, in Latin America, nor in Africa or Asia. The result is a paucity of knowledge about many areas of the world. No Canadian university teaches Soviet jurisprudence, for example. Very few have anything to say about the legal and economic approaches of continental Europe. Many parts of the world are a complete blank, so far as Canadian universities are concerned. As Leddy puts it:

"Only three of our largest universities provide courses in the languages, the history and philosophy of the Far East; not many more provide the elements of instruction in Spanish, the language of a great continent where current developments are beginning to concern us urgently; and only one or two pretend to be able to give even an introduction to major issues, political, religious and historical, as they are emerging in Africa."

And at home, Canadian problems tend to be viewed as simply a smaller version of American ones. Our normal schools, for example, are permeated with "states rights" concepts of education picked up at U.S. state universities. Our economy — with its peculiar feature of long-line human geography — is approached as though it were the round, hefty giant of a million brands to the South. The constitution of our 20 million is expected to be as "federal" as one suited to a country with ten times the population.

Startling as it may seem, the same kind of situation prevails in the *sciences*. This is clear from the speech of Dr. J. W. T. Spinks, President of the University of Saskatchewan. Scientists returning to Canada do so with specializations geared to the research interests of — primarily — the United States. There is thus a paucity of research interest in such fields as arctic studies, the problem of long-distance hydro-electricity grids, machinery and instruments for cold-weather operation, etc.

The proof of this lies in the facilities available to university scientists. Apart from the National Research Council and scattered institutes — such as the Arctic Institute at McGill, which, by the way, is affiliated with and financed by an American organization — very little is being done to encourage scientific study and research devoted to Canadian problems. As Dr. Spinks puts it:

"At the moment the total number of institutes is rather small . . . Naturally, one has to be careful not to promote institutes for institutes' sake, but where Canada or some part of Canada has a particular interest in a particular area of knowledge, then some thought might well be given to fostering such an institute." He also pointed out that "Canada is so close to a large and powerful neighbour that it is apt to be completely swamped by it in the publication of scientific books and monographs." Here he called for an "enlightened policy of support for prospective Canadian science authors."

There is general recognition that the solution to all these problems — wider offerings in the curriculae of Canadian universities — requires two things: awareness and money. The conference supplied the awareness of our problems. The big question remains: where does the money come from?

In 1959-60, the university income dollar came from these sources: provincial governments, 32¢; the federal government, 24¢; tuition fees, 28¢; and from other sources, 16¢. Other sources included endowment funds, and corporate giving. Clearly, the big corporations — making profits in all provinces, but largely U.S. owned — are the pikers in the pie.

Speaker after speaker at the conference exhorted industry to do more to support education, particularly by establishing research fellowships and scholarships to enable students continue to graduate work

in the social and physical sciences. But equally, every speaker to the subject ended by placing greatest reliance on the bounty of Ottawa.

Dr. A. D. Dunton, President of Carleton University, in a background paper released before the conference, emphasized that "Universities serve the needs of the whole nation, as well as the people of particular provinces, and funds coming from the federal government, or from special arrangements made by the federal government, form the next largest part of university support . . . The Canadian Universities Foundation has asked that the basis of federal grants be increased to $2.50 per head of population, and that there be special grants of $500 for each student in medicine, dentistry, or graduate studies."

The Canadian Universities Foundation has also asked Ottawa to provide annually between $10,000,000 and $16,000,000 for capital grants. That sum would cover about one-tenth of the cost of buildings required in the next few years. Dr. Dunton concluded that "If Canadians, through their governments and through private generosity, do a little more than double their support in the next five years, universities will be able to meet the demands of the times. If the necessary support is withheld, then not only its universities but Canada itself will inevitably be found wanting in the new age."

With these thoughts in mind, Conference delegates were disappointed when the Prime Minister addressed them on the evening of November 14. He conceded that "National growth is becoming more and more dependent upon the education of Canadian citizens" but he emphasized — in both French and English — that Ottawa is constitutionally prevented from giving substantial aid to education (an argument which, in accordance with Section 93 of the British North America Act, is correct — but only insofar as it relates to general, childhood education. Other areas of education — military colleges, Indian schools and departmental training schools — may be federal, and it is noteworthy that Queen's University has always possessed a federal charter).

Responding to the Prime Minister's shelving of university demands for aid, and responding to the pre-occupations of the Conference in other fields, delegates concluded their deliberations on the morning of the fifteenth with these resolutions:

RESOLUTIONS

adopted by the

National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges

at the closing session of a Conference concerning
"Canada's Universities in a New Age"
held in Ottawa, 13-15 November, 1961

WHEREAS the representatives of the universities and colleges of Canada, meeting at a Special Conference in Ottawa five years after the similar meeting in 1956, consider it a serious obligation to warn the people of Canada that the crisis in higher education in Canada which was then predicted and which has been only in part resolved, as it has developed from year to year, with the co-operation of public and private assistance, still continues and deepens, and that there is every prospect that it will grow more acute during the next decade;

AND WHEREAS it is their strong conviction that a greater investment in higher education in Canada is of vital importance to the development of this country and to the future of its young people, as well as a prerequisite for survival in an age of intense international pressures;

AND WHEREAS with the increase in the population of Canada the enrolment in Canadian universities has almost doubled in the past seven years, and further, is expected, even with exacting standards of admission, almost to triple during the next ten years from a figure of 114,000 last year to an estimate of 312,000 by 1970, with the inevitable result that all Canadian universities and colleges will be under extreme pressure and will encounter great difficulty in securing sufficient financial resources for the necessary staff, buildings and equipment;

AND WHEREAS, to meet the demands of the age there is need in Canada for further rapid development of advanced teaching and research in many fields of knowledge, the delegates to the Special Conference, as an urgent responsibility do hereby RESOLVE

(1) that, as essential assistance in meeting the critical financial problem, the Government of Canada be again urged to increase the present federal grant from $1.50 to $2.50 per capita, and that in order to meet exceptionally high costs in certain professional and graduate

courses it provide to the universities of Canada an additional supplement of $500 for every student registered in medical, dental, and graduate studies;

(2) that, since Canadian universities are finding increasing difficulty in supplying the necessary new building for teaching and research in the sciences, the Government of Canada be urged to recognise that the national interest is here essentially involved, and that it provide a sum of $50 million for such construction during the next five years, to be distributed under a formula of matching grants supervised by the National Research Council or alternatively by the Canadian Universities Foundation;

(3) that the Government of Canada be requested to make possible an extension in the admirable programme of the Canada Council by an addition to the endowment or by the provision of additional sums, annually provided, for an increase in the number of fellowships required by the growth in the population of Canada and the rise in university enrolment;

(4) that, since much attention will inevitably be given to the crisis in higher education as it is illustrated in some of our larger universities located in metropolitan areas, it is particularly desirable to re-affirm the value of the contribution of the smaller universities and colleges, many of them of long establishment, to the welfare of the nation, and to recommend to local, provincial and federal governments and to private donors, both individual and corporate, the necessity of maintaining our smaller universities and colleges with adequate staff and financial support;

(5) that, since many young Canadians encounter serious or insuperable difficulty in financing a university course, private donors, local, provincial and national authorities be strongly urged to increase the sums now provided for scholarships, bursaries and loan funds;

(6) that special approval and thanks be extended to the Government of Canada for its assistance to overseas students under such schemes as the Colombo Plan and the Commonwealth Scholarships, and that particular satisfaction be expressed concerning the recent establishment of the External Aid Office, and that it be strongly recommended that there be an expansion of assistance for overseas students, particularly in favour of students from those areas of Africa with insufficient provision for higher education — an appropriate plan for Canada since many of these students will come from regions in which French is the language of instruction;

(7) that, since our universities have not only a national but an international service to perform, increasing attention be given in Canada to the development of international studies and to the languages, history and philosophy of foreign countries, particularly those outside the Western European tradition;

(8) that an expression of appreciation be forwarded to the Right Honourable John G. Diefenbaker, Prime Minister of Canada, for his attendance at a session of the Conference and for his emphasis upon the role the Canadian universities and colleges must play in our

developing sense of nationalism, in the academic growth of Canada, and in the implementation of its foreign policy;

(9) that special thanks be extended to the Programme Committee of the Conference for its admirable plans for the present meeting, and to the secretariat of the N.C.C.U.C. for its efficient arrangements, with particular appreciation for the provision of convenient devices for simultaneous translation.

THE LIBERAL ARTS AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS*

by Frank H. Underhill

I propose to make some rambling reflections about the part which the university humanities and social sciences during my life-time have played in the Canadian community at large, and about the relationship of the liberal arts to our Canadian public affairs. These are very personal, one-sided reflections, arising from my own narrow experiences; and I shall have to apologize in advance for excessive use of the first personal pronoun.

Recently in Ottawa I have been reading a good deal in the historical documentation of the National Research Council, which is preparing a history of itself in anticipation of its fiftieth birthday in 1966. My reading has led me frequently to exclaim to myself how similar the history of the relationship of the natural sciences to the social sciences and humanities in our Canadian national community has been to their relationship inside this University.

The N.R.C. was founded by Order-in-Council in 1916, followed and confirmed by an Act of Parliament in 1917. In legal form it was and still remains the Honorary Advisory Council for Scientific and Industrial Research. It consisted at the start of ten men, mostly distinguished university scientists, who served without remuneration, headed by a salaried full-time chairman, Dr. A. B. Macallum from the University of Toronto. It was responsible to and reported to a Committee of the Privy Council headed by the Minister of Trade and Commerce. It was not a part of any government department; it was not under Civil Service regulations as to appointments, promotions or

*This article is drawn from an address delivered at the official opening of a new arts building at the University of Saskatchewan, 16 January 1961. The University, which published the address as a pamphlet, has agreed to have the body of it reprinted here.

salary scales; it was, as later Acts made clear, a body corporate — a Crown Corporation, as we would say today — administering its affairs without day-to-day control by Parliament.

The N.R.C. was set up in the middle of the war because experience was showing that Germany's superior organization in scientific research had given her a great military advantage over the allies. When Dr. Macallum and his colleagues went out across Canada addressing Chambers of Commerce, Canadian Clubs and industrial groups, this was their first argument, as they tried to educate the Canadian public in the new doctrine that the federal government must now foster and support general scientific research. Later they added to this the argument that, if Canada was to hold her own in the fierce post-war competition for trade, and if she was ever to be able to pay off her war debt, she must expand her economy; which meant that she would have to embark on an even wider program of using organized scientific research for the development of her natural resources. This campaign was carried on incessantly through the 1920's.

From the start the scientists on the Honorary Advisory Council pressed for the setting up of a central national research laboratory. The Government was very slow in responding. At the end of its period of office in 1921 the Conservative government of Mr. Meighen introduced legislation to provide for such a building, but the measure was thrown out in the Senate, the elder statesmen of our country agreeing that, with the high war debt hanging over us, along with all the expenses of post-war reconstruction, this was not the time for embarking on new experiments. It was not till 1927 that the Mackenzie King administration finally decided to provide funds for a central laboratory in Ottawa; and the building on Sussex Street was eventually opened in 1932. Mr. King, as Prime Minister, not merely provided the money for its erection, but as an individual with definite aesthetic tastes he had a good deal to do with its architectural style. The heavy, over-elaborate structure with its false pillars represents his idea of the dignity which all government buildings should aim to express. Those of you who have visited Ottawa recently will not need to be told that the capital city today is blossoming out all over with dignified federal government buildings.

In its first full year of activity, the fiscal year 1917-1918, the National Research Council was granted by government the sum of $91,600.00 of which it spent $50,374.65. Having no laboratories of its own, it devoted itself mainly to two activities to promote the

development of science in Canada, activities which it has carried on vigorously ever since. First, it made grants-in-aid to university scientists to enable them to conduct specific programs of research to which it had given its approval; and, secondly, it started to give fellowships and studentships to young science graduates to enable them to get the further training that would equip them to become research scientists. Nine of these latter awards were made in this first year, two of which were to be held by students working in the chemical laboratory of the University of Saskatchewan. Ten grants-in-aid were made at the same time to senior scientists in the universities, two of which went to the University of Saskatchewan — one of $2,000 to Professor W. P. Thompson in biology for an investigation into the genetics of wheat; and one of $1,500 to Professor R. D. MacLaurin in chemistry for an investigation into the utilization of waste straw on the prairie for the production of straw-gas to heat and light farm houses.

From this simple and humble beginning the National Research Council has gone on to its magnificent achievements of later years. I suppose that the money it has made available for the graduate training of young scientists and for the assistance of research in university laboratories has had more to do than any other influence with the tremendous expansion of the natural sciences in our Canadian universities. That first grant of $2,000 to W. P. Thompson of Saskatchewan was the beginning of what must have been the greatest co-operative research enterprise in our history — the study of wheat and wheat-rust, and the breeding of rust-resistant varieties of wheat — an enterprise fostered by continuous grants from the N.R.C. and enlisting the efforts of the federal and provincial departments of agriculture as well as of the three prairie universities, all working together under the supervision of one of the associate committees of the N.R.C., with the biology laboratory here in the University of Saskatchewan taking the lead in the basic research into the nature of wheat genes and chromosomes, and the scientists in the College of Agriculture here playing their part in the growing and testing of new varieties of wheat. I can still remember some of the excitement which spread from science labs and from greenhouses and experimental plots on the University farm even into those austere, withdrawn ivory towers on the campus where such subjects as English and Canadian history were being studied.

I can also remember another research in the 1920's organized under the N.R.C., in which Saskatchewan played the leading part. This was the investigation into the disintegrating effects of the so-called alkali water on the Prairie upon cement. This research was carried on co-operatively under the Engineering Institute of Canada and the N.R.C.; Dean C. J. Mackenzie of the College of Engineering exercised general supervision over this project, and Professor Thorvaldson with his team of chemists did the basic research into what happened chemically to cement when exposed to prairie alkali.

When World War II broke out and General McNaughton, the then president of the National Research Council, was transferred by the government to military duties, his successor was Dean C. J. Mackenzie of Saskatchewan. It was under him that the N.R.C. had its greatest expansion. I need not here enlarge upon its achievements in the field of atomic energy or in the various other fields connected with defence in which it worked so brilliantly in very close co-operation with scientists in Great Britain and the United States. Today the N.R.C. laboratories in Ottawa have expanded into the great complex of buildings out on the Montreal Road; its work in atomic energy has been separated off under an independent organization, the Atomic Energy Control Board of which Dr. Mackenzie is the head; research done for the Defence Department has also been separated off under the Defence Research Board; and now the work in medical research, which was financed by a Division of the N.R.C., is also to be carried out by a new independent organization, the Medical Research Council.

The N.R.C. of 1961 is governed by the same Honorary Advisory Council as at the start. The Council now consists of a salaried President, Dr. E. W. R. Steacie, three salaried Vice-Presidents, and seventeen other members, nearly all of them from the science departments of our Canadian universities. President Spinks is one of its present members.

In his report for the fiscal year 1959-60 Dr. Steacie states that in that year the N.R.C. provided $8.7 million to support pure research in the universities; this included 875 grants-in-aid and 425 scholarships and fellowships. It employed 658 scientific research staff (including 137 postdoctorate fellows) as well as 916 technical personnel and 866 general service and administrative staff. In addition to its laboratories in Ottawa it operated two regional laboratories, one in Halifax and one here on the University campus in Saskatoon; and its Division of Medical Research awarded grants and fellowships in that field, though it had no laboratories of its own. Also, in that year the N.R.C. answered

11,800 technical enquiries from Canadian industries. Its total expenditure for the year was 33 million dollars.

I have gone into the history of the National Research Council because it illustrates several points which I think should be of interest to us humanists and social scientists. Incidentally, I should remark here that on that first Honorary Advisory Council one of the members was President Walter Murray of the University of Saskatchewan. He was not a scientist but I have been told on good authority that he was one of the most useful members of the Council; he acted as a kind of peacemaker among the various scientific prima donnas who formed the nucleus of the Council, and he was very inventive in suggesting resolutions that would reconcile the conflicting ambitions of rival scientists. Natural scientists, as we in the humanities and social sciences can all testify, are not humble creatures. I have been informed by another very good authority that if the story of some of the fiery inner struggles within the N.R.C. could be fully told, it would make our Canadian political struggles look even more drab than they are; it would, in fact, require a Canadian C.P. Snow to do it justice.

But the point is that all through this period of nearly fifty years the policy of the N.R.C. has been determined by the scientists themselves. Our Canadian mass-democracy, without ever being quite aware of what it was doing, in a long fifty-year fit of absence of mind, committed itself after 1916 to a new enterprise, the subsidization by the national government of general scientific research. We worked out a remarkable relationship between the scientists in university laboratories and in the laboratories of the N.R.C. who do this research, on the one side, and the Canadian taxpayer and his parliamentary representatives who provide the money for it, on the other. The research depends ultimately on what funds Parliament is prepared to provide for it. But through this relationship of an Honorary Advisory Council of scientists reporting to a Committee of the Privy Council, the N.R.C. has been able to perform its ever expanding services without political interference. "Science + politics = O", remarked one American American scientist after bitter experience of what goes on in Washington.

The N.R.C. is investigated every few years by a special committee of the House of Commons. If one reads the proceedings of these committees and the debates in the House and in the Senate from time to time as amendments to the original N.R.C. Act of 1917 have been passed, and if one reads clippings from Canadian newspapers all

across the country on the subject of the N.R.C. since 1916, one will hardly get the impression that the members of Parliament or the Canadian people at large have really understood very much about what research is or about the scientific point of view. In the early days there were always sceptics who doubted whether scientists could spend money wisely and who advised that control of scientific research be put into the hands of some practical business men. There were also the philistines who didn't believe in science at all.

Listen, for example, to Tommy Church of Toronto in the House of Commons in 1928: "The first thing Canada should do in the way of research is to dig up an all-Canadian tariff policy that will keep Canadians in Canada and give them a job in their own country . . . . A proper tariff policy would do more for this country in one week than any other agency I know of for industrial and scientific research . . . . The main research which the country wants is a research policy that will frame a Canadian tariff that will provide work in Canada for Canadians."

The fact is that we have here a new institution in the working of democracy in our highly industrialized technological twentieth-century Canadian society. What has struck me most in my reading has been the increasing frankness of the heads of the N.R.C., especially of the present head, Dr. E. W. R. Steacie, in telling the politicians who vote the money that *ad hoc* applied research, while it may produce some spectacular results which more than justify the money spent on it, will not carry a country very far unless it has as its basis the fundamental research of the pure scientist who proceeds without thought of immediate practical results but simply in order to pierce further into the secrets of nature.

This successful experiment of the National Research Council seems to me one of the miracles of our modern Canadian democracy. It is an achievement worth study by humanists and social scientists who are specially interested in this problem of freedom for the intellectual in modern mass-democratic society.

But I have dwelt so long on the N.R.C. because there is another reason why it should interest us humanists. It was set going by the arguments that Germany's scientific pre-eminence had proved the necessity of research in the natural sciences for war purposes, and that post-war peaceful international competition would still further demonstrate that the Canadian economy could not be successful if Canada

remained, as she had been before 1914, largely a parasite dependent on the scientific and industrial research done in other countries. The N.R.C. was one of the striking examples of the growth of national spirit in Canada after 1914; and the arguments for establishing it were certainly valid.

Yet surely our war experience in the years 1914-18 demonstrated still more emphatically the weakness of our *social* fabric, the lack of national cohesion in our Canadian society, our need for more understanding and skill in the social art of living together. In 1917 the country almost broke apart as a result of the clash between English-Canadians and French-Canadians about how the war should be carried on and what the extent of the Canadian commitment in the war should be. At the same time a new sinister class bitterness was growing up; farmers were protesting that they were not getting a fair deal, while industrial workers in the towns and consumers everywhere were protesting that they were being exploited by profiteering employers and big business men. The result was the confusion and bitterness in our politics which lasted through the 1920's. Then came the great depression of the 1930's to bring further social, economic and ideological troubles which need not be enlarged upon here.

Surely, if the experience of Canada after 1914 demonstrated the need for more research workers in the natural sciences, it demonstrated still more insistently the need for sociologists, economists, political scientists, historians, psychologists, philosophers to study our social problems, the need for poets, novelists and dramatists to reveal us to ourselves. And surely if one kind of research deserved financial support from the national government, so did all this social study and writing which was crying out to be done. Yet, as far as I know, it did not occur to the humanists and social scientists in our universities to make the same kind of collective demand for financial help from the national government, on the ground of the vital national importance of their activities, as was made by the natural scientists.

This seems to me to lead inevitably to the conclusion that the humanities and social sciences in our universities had not reached the same level of maturity as had the natural sciences. We had not the same confidence in the importance for the national well-being of what we were doing; and we did not set out to educate the public on that subject.

It was not until the beginning of the 1950's, after World War II, that the Massey Commission came along and did for us what we should have done for ourselves much earlier. And then, after further delay because the humanists, unlike the natural scientists, had not learned how to operate as an effective pressure-group in influencing politicians and voters, and only through the lucky accident that a couple of vulgar business millionaires happened to die and to provide the federal government with an unexpected windfall of some large estate duties, only then was the Canada Council finally established. It will accomplish for us who are interested in the humanities and social sciences something similar to what the National Research Council has been doing for nearly fifty years in its special field. It has funds for distribution to assist young Arts graduates to complete their graduate training, to assist senior scholars in their research projects and in publishing, to subsidize organizations in the fields of music, ballet and drama, to assist individual writers and artists, etc.

The point is that it was only late in the 1950's that our country committed itself to this new national responsibility. Surely this has been a long time coming, and surely the fault has not been in the unimaginative laissez-faire conservatism of elected politicians but in the lack of ambition of our humanists and social scientists. They had not sufficient confidence in the national importance of what they were doing.

Before I pass from this theme of the National Research Council and the Canada Council, let me pause for a moment to observe how far our Canadian democracy has gone during the past generation in socialistic experiments devoted to the fostering of a distinctive national culture in its higher manifestations. Added to the system of state-supported schools and universities, which goes back to the early years of the nineteenth century, we now have the National Research Council and various provincial Research Councils; the Canada Council; the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation; the National Film Board; the National Gallery and the National Library (about to be constructed in Ottawa), along with provincial and municipal art galleries and libraries; the Public Archives of Canada, along with provincial archives departments; and a great variety of public museums. For such hum-

drum people as we Canadians are, this is not altogether a bad record in imaginative, constructive socialism.

In most of these institutions there arise from time to time, and there will continue to arise, problems as to the freedom of scientists, scholars, and artists, in pursuing their special professional activities while dependent for financial support upon public funds. How independent can the professional, publicly-financed scientist, scholar or artist be of the opinions of the great lay public and of the politicians who act for it? Perhaps this is a problem of democracy that will never finally be solved. In the meantime it strikes me that all of us in these special cultural institutions supported by taxation should be a little more conscious than we seem to be of how vital are the interests that we have in common.

When the freedom of any one of us — scientist, scholar or artist — is successfully attacked, the freedom of all of us is diminished.

* * * *

Let me turn to another theme. I have been complaining that university humanists and social scientists have not been vigorous enough in pressing for public support for their special intellectual activities. I think also that they have not been adventurous enough in trying to find effective ways to communicate with the mass-democracy outside the university. And since my academic life has been devoted to the study of history and politics. I shall confine what I have to say on this question to the relationship of the university with politics.

I was a Saskatchewan professor of history in the 1920's in the decade of the great Progressive upheaval. It seemed to me then that for the first time in my life I was living in the midst of a live, dynamic, creative democracy, such as I had hitherto only read about in books. No doubt I was young and naïve about practical politics as only a Toronto and Oxford graduate could be. Yet I could not help wondering why the prairie universities remained so detached from this political ferment, so content to confine their direct contacts with non-university prairie citizens to technical questions, such as those of field or animal husbandry with which their agricultural colleges dealt, or to fairly elementary extension classes. This did not seem to me an altogether healthy relationship between the university and the community outside. Why wasn't there a relationship like that between the University of Wisconsin and the State of Wisconsin in the great La Follette days, when university professors in the social sciences supplied intellectual

guidance to practical political reformers? No one demands that all professors should be politically minded, but why weren't some of them active in the 1920's? I have never found a satisfactory answer to this question.

The Progressive movement of the 1920's would have profited by more intellectual intercourse with university men. As later historians have emphasized, perhaps overemphasized, its leaders were naïve in their ideas about the functions of political parties, about parliamentary government, about the operation of credit in public finance. I can remember, in Ottawa in 1926, listening to some messianic private accounts by U.F.A. and Labour members of what government credit might accomplish. This was a considerable time before William Aberhart loomed up over the horizon.

The Social Credit movement will, of course, remain the classical horrible example in our history of the kind of economic and political fantasies with which low-brows, uninfluenced by high-brows, are liable to delude themselves.

In the 1930's, when the C.C.F. was launched, university professors did play a big part in its activities. If they had managed to play a bigger part still, they might have saved the C.C.F. from the propensity of so many of its members to elevate the Fabian ideas of the Regina Manifesto into immutable metaphysical dogmas. They were mostly eastern Canadian professors. But the University of Saskatchewan in those days was not altogether free from periods of tension arising over the right of professors to take part in politics.

I was interested to read in Professor Carlyle King's volume on the history of this university that in 1917 President Murray, after some hesitation, spoke at a great public meeting in Saskatoon in favour of Union government, but first wrote out his resignation to the Board of Governors. So sensitive was he to the danger of the university's getting mixed up in controversial politics. In Toronto I can recall being told once by President Falconer that, in his view, academic freedom was limited to the freedom of the professor to proclaim the truth as he saw it only *inside* the university. By the middle of the 1930's some of us were claiming a much wider freedom than that — and exercising it.

Yet I should class Presidents Murray and Falconer as two of the very few genuine liberals whom I have met among those in high places in Canada during my lifetime.

The 1930's and 1940's in fact, formed a watershed in our Canadian university history, so far as this question of the right of academic men to intervene in current political controversy is concerned. In spite of all the denunciation of "red" professors in those days, and of the apoplectic indignation which they aroused in the breasts of bankers, railway presidents and newspaper editors, it is now part of our conventional wisdom that professors have the right to be active in controversial public affairs — well, that is, so long as they are not too active.

There is undoubtedly a real danger that a professor in becoming a party man will lose his capacity for objectivity, and there is a still greater danger that he will dissipate his intellectual energies on purely ephemeral matters. So far, in Canada, it seems to me, professors have been more likely to succumb to the much more insidious danger of becoming respectable. We have not yet had much opportunity to judge whether being underpaid or being overpaid in our profession makes an academic man more solicitous of respectability. But respectability is the besetting sin of our university humanists and social scientists. Respectability is what chiefly inhibits vitality and creativity.

I think that most of the professors I knew who went into politics in the 1930's and 1940's were improved thereby in their performance of their own professional duties, however little they may have succeeded in improving their society. But of course my judgment on this matter is prejudiced. I have always wondered, however, why a professor's intellectual integrity should be considered to disintegrate if he commits himself to a political party, whereas if he makes the much greater, much more fundamental commitment to a church, his academic mind is considered to be in no serious danger at all.

At any rate, I comfort myself by reflecting that since the 1930's Canadian university humanists and social scientists have made great progress in the direction that I approve. They have emerged from their academic seclusion. They advise governments. They are publishing books and articles, delivering speeches, appearing before royal commissions, writing letters to the papers, on current public issues. They are at last doing what they should have been doing earlier, trying to communicate directly with our mass-democracy, and not merely indirectly through such influence as they may have on that small select portion of the democratic mass who pass through their hands as students. Even our literary humanists, some of them, seem to be making

tentative approaches to the vulgar masses — and we all know that for a long time literary men have not been happy unless they could feel themselves alienated from their society.

This new taste in academic circles for more active, more direct citizenship is showing itself at this moment in the numbers of professors who have been giving assistance to the Liberal party, and to the unnamed New Party, as they work out their policy program. The Kingston conference of liberally-minded people which Mr. Pearson and his lieutenants brought together last September swarmed with university men, most of them markedly loquacious. There were even two poets there. The Liberal rally in Ottawa last week attracted many of these same persons. Walking around in these two gatherings was almost like walking around in a meeting of the learned societies every June. I confess that I cannot observe the effects of any similar academic invasion into the ranks of the governing Progressive-Conservative party in Ottawa. But I understand that there is more than one academic Chanticleer who claims that it was his crowing that caused the Conservative sun to rise over Canada in 1957.

Of course this kind of activity by university men is much more marked in Britain and the United States than it has yet become in Canada. When I used to get into trouble for political activities in the thirties and forties, I occasionally put the point to my university president that I was only doing what large numbers of British academic men had been doing for years, and that this ought to be taken for granted in so British a community as Toronto. It would use up considerable time merely to make out a list of British academic intellectuals who have taken part in political controversies since, say, 1900, and whose writings on history, government and political theory are the standard works that we now assign to our more mature students in those fields.

In the United States since the days of F. D. R.'s first brain-trust it is hard to think of outstanding economists and political scientists who have not worked at some time for a Democratic or Republican government in the federal or state field or who have not devoted a part of their energies to brain-trusting for some political leader. At the present moment, considering all the men from Harvard and M.I.T. who are about to serve in some post or other under President Kennedy, it seems slightly doubtful whether the government of the United States for the next four years will be located in Washington, D.C., or in Cambridge, Massachusetts.

In Canada, however, we lack one element affecting the relationship of the university to politics which has reached its fullest development in Britain and which is developing rapidly in the United States. This is the existence of an élite society, with the universities at the centre of it, whose members consist of educated men and women, to whom politics is a natural interest along with literature, art, music, philosophy, science, and sometimes religion.

The visible sign of this society in Britain which we can discern from our side of the Atlantic is the periodical press that it publishes and reads. There are seven high-class weekly magazines published in Britain, all of them apparently in flourishing condition; in fact their circulations have been going up while those of most of the mass-circulation press have been going down. They are: the *New Statesman, the Economist, the Spectator,* the *Listener,* the *Times Literary Supplement,* the *Sunday Times,* the *Observer.* In a month or so an eighth is about to be added to the list, the *Sunday Telegraph.* And of course there are also the *Times Weekly* and the *Manchester Guardian Weekly,* which are condensed newspapers rather than magazines. All of these journals are edited and written by university men for university men. A good deal of the writing in them comes from university dons. And — what is specially significant — they discuss every week, as subjects of equal interest, not merely politics but also literature, art, music, drama, philosophy, science, religion, radio and television. They and their readers form a lively, dynamic and cohesive society.

In the United States it does not seem possible to publish weeklies of the quality of these British journals, owing to the wide scattering across a continent of the readers to whom they would have to appeal. But the number of high-class American monthlies and quarterlies seems infinite. And one of the exhilarating features of American culture at present is the profusion of very readable quarterlies published by American universities, of which my favorite remains the *Yale Review.*

Doubtless we in Canada have not yet a large enough body of educated readers who could support any number of journals of the British or of the American type. But why? What becomes of all those B.A.'s whom our Canadian universities pour out every spring? Why have our humanists and social scientists succeeded in implanting in so few of them the urge to read good periodical literature of a quality above the level of our daily press? Why have not the three prairie universities started a prairie quarterly of the quality of the *Queen's Quarterly?* Why does the *University of Toronto Quarterly* remain

so precious and so unreadable by any but those unfortunates who have condemned themselves to life sentences in the ivory tower?

Given the absence, or the lack of cohesion, of such an élite educated society in Canada to act as a leaven within our mass-democracy, my hopes of great results from new political parties, or from rejuvenated old parties, or from old parties equipped chiefly with a mystic vision, have become dim. In my old age I notice with some apprehension that I am beginning to feel in the same way that John Buchan says Lord Minto felt about parties: "His party politics, never cherished with much conviction, were mellowed and liberalized by an insight into the eternal difficulties of all parties and their curious alikeness in fundamentals." I hope that this skeptical detachment which is creeping over me does not last. But one becomes conscious as one's experience grows of the limitations to what political parties can accomplish. Much more important than their party program is the intellectual climate in the midst of which they operate. I think that Canadian university humanists and social scientists should be ambitious to do much more than they have done in the past towards influencing that intellectual climate.

* * * *

Well, this is just about the end of my reminiscing and sermonizing. I have been maintaining: first, that the humanists and social scientists in our Canadian universities have been too far behind the natural scientists in pressing for systematic support by government of their activities; and, second, that our mass-democracy would be invigorated intellectually if our university humanists and social scientists were willing to try more experiments in communicating directly with the general public outside of the immediate circle of the university.

A few years ago I happened to read an article in the *Manchester Guardian* by James Morris, a writer whose name had never before caught my attention. He is now one of my favourite journalists. This article of his was about Venice, about tourism in Venice as observed by him on the great square in front of St. Mark's. He expressed the opinion that among male tourists the English gentleman was still the finest specimen to be met with; while the English female seemed to him to represent the most unpleasing type, both because of her manners and because of her clothes. He went on to discuss German tourists and French tourists at some length, and American tourists at greater length. He remarked that the Russians had ceased coming and that the Chinese had not yet arrived. And then he added, in an innocent

matter-of-fact tone: "The Australians are unmistakable, the Canadians are indistinguishable."

Now, God forbid that we Canadians should try to make ourselves distinguishable by copying any of those characteristics that make Australians unmistakable. But I think we can all appreciate the sting in Mr. Morris's remark about us.

Our Canadian natural scientists, after fifty years of activity in the N.R.C. and in our university science departments, are now distinguishable. You have become distinguishable in science when young scientists from all over the world want to come and work in your laboratories in order to study and profit from your special individual ideas and speculations and techniques. Dr. Steacie remarked in his evidence before the House of Commons committee last year that in its pure science Divisions the N.R.C. has a more cosmopolitan group of young research workers than would be found today in any European university.

In the field of the humanities and social sciences some particular departments in different Canadian universities have made themselves distinguishable in this sense. And all our Arts departments have emancipated themselves from the genteel tradition of scholarship which was handed down to them by the little liberal arts colleges of the nineteenth century, the tradition that the professor's duty is simply to transmit the conventional wisdom of the past to the rising generation of students. But I don't think that they are as yet contributing as much as they might towards making Canadians as a whole distinguishable. They ought to have more to do than the natural sciences have with determining the kind of person that the individual Canadian shall be as a human being and as a citizen.

The natural scientists in Canada achieved their take-off — to use the Rostovian metaphor — with the foundation of the National Research Council nearly fifty years ago. Let us hope that such recent events in our national community as the founding of the Canada Council will be looked back to by future generations as having had a great symbolical significance. They will have marked the point at which our humanists and social scientists achieved their take-off on the flight to make Canadians distinguishable.

UNIVERSITY GOVERNMENT IN NEW ZEALAND

by A. G. Davis* and J. E. Northey°

When we were asked to write an article on University government in New Zealand, we decided that it would be necessary to provide an historical account of university development in our country. The year 1961 is a highly significant one for the Universities of New Zealand in that it marks the end of the federal system of University government and witnesses the dissolution of the University of New Zealand. The new machinery is as yet largely untried and a prudent man might hesitate to speculate on the manner in which we will be governed in future. However, because the newly constituted University Grants Committee has been in office since January 1, 1961, and was in large measure responsible for the drafting of the new legislation, it is possible to see fairly clearly the shape of things to come.

We have chosen to describe in some detail the relationship between the six University institutions in New Zealand and the University of New Zealand, not only because this account may be useful to other Universities working within a federal framework, but also because it will tend to concentrate attention on the unsatisfactory features of the past and the present arrangements. In 1959 the Government appointed a committee of inquiry to report on University education in New Zealand. The legislation passed this year was influenced by the report of the committee, but in many respects it failed to carry out the committee's recommendations. It was confidently expected that the legislation would give each University the power to confer its own degrees and also pass to them control over degree structures. In fact, the legislation has fallen far short of this and has preserved in a different and less satisfactory form many of the characteristics of the federal system which remained until the end of 1961. This article, therefore, falls naturally into three parts:

(a) an historical account of University development in New Zealand;

(b) a summary of the recommendations of the Hughes Parry Committee; and

(c) the main features of the legislation enacted in 1961.

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Historical Development

The Early Years

University education in New Zealand began in 1869. An ordinance of the Provincial Council of Otago in that year created the University of Otago. In the following year, by virtue of an Act of the General Assembly — The New Zealand University Act 1870 — the University of New Zealand was established. The Act provided for the merging of the University of Otago with the University of New Zealand. Various difficulties prevented the immediate carrying into effect of that provision. Each of the Universities applied to the Crown for a charter to grant degrees — a step necessary for the recognition of those degrees throughout the British dominions. The Secretary of State replied that circumstances did not justify the granting of a charter to more than one University in New Zealand.

Agreement was reached between the University of New Zealand and the University of Otago in 1874 on certain terms, one of the chief of which was that Otago withdrew its application for a Royal Charter. In consequence, the New Zealand University Act 1874 was enacted. The University of New Zealand became, as it remained until the end of 1961, the only University, in the full sense of the word, in New Zealand. The Act provided that the University created by the Act was established not for the purpose of teaching but for the purpose of encouraging the pursuit of a liberal education and for determining, by means of examination, what persons were entitled to degrees and certificates of proficiency.

The Act of 1874 authorized the University of New Zealand to grant degrees in Arts, Law, Science, Medicine and Music, but as the Secretary of State advised that Her Majesty was not prepared to grant a charter for the granting of degrees in Science, an Act was passed in 1875 recognising this limitation. The Royal Charter of 1876 consequently gave authority for the granting of degrees in Arts, Law, Medicine and Music. In 1884, the charter was extended to cover degrees in Science. Degrees in other subjects were awarded by virtue of New Zealand parliamentary legislation. They cannot claim legal status in other parts of the Commonwealth. Indeed, since the enactment and adoption by the various parts of the Commonwealth of the Statute of Westminster, it is doubtful whether even degrees granted in terms

of the charter can claim legal recognition in other parts of the Commonwealth.

Under the terms of the 1874 Act, the governing body of the University was a Senate of twenty-four members or Fellows appointed in the first place by the Government, and, when vacancies arose, alternately by the Senate itself and by a Court of Convocation of graduates of two years' standing. Convocation was to be set up when the graduates numbered thirty.

In 1902, the Senate was remodelled to consist of:—

four persons nominated by the Governor in Council;

eight persons appointed by governing bodies of College Councils (two by each);

(Canterbury College had been founded in 1873, Auckland in 1882 and Victoria, which is situated in Wellington, in 1897).

Eight persons appointed by District Courts of Convocation (two by each);

four persons appointed by professorial boards (one by each).

This constitution remained unaltered until 1926.

Two points of interest may be noted:

(i) Until the creation of the Board of Studies in 1914, Senate as constituted above was the sole governing body of the University.

(ii) There being no restriction, as there is today, on members of University staffs being members of Senate. In 1925, ten professors were members of Senate, out of a total of twenty-four members. In 1961, there were thirty members of Senate, three of whom were professors.

The Board of Studies was created by the New Zealand University Amendment Act 1914. This Act may be said to be the result of the activities of the University Reform Association, the moving spirits in which were certain professors at Victoria College. The Board consisted of five professors from each of the four constituent Colleges. The chief function of the Board was to advise the Senate on academic matters. Legal opinion was that the Senate could not take any legislative action on academic matters contrary to the resolutions of the Board of Studies. In academic matters, the Board had, in effect, complete control. The Senate could impose delay by referring back to the Board any

recommendations it was not disposed to adopt. As the Board of Studies has now disappeared, there is little to be gained by entering into details of a controversy which was not even stilled by a judgment of the Supreme Court in 1917 which favoured the Board's point of view.

The 1925 Commission and Thereafter

A Royal Commission of 1925 (the Reichel-Tate Commission) made far-reaching recommendations for the amendment of the University system — particularly in matters of government. As the result of its recommendations, two entirely new statutory bodies came into existence — the Entrance Board and the Council of Legal Education. The Board of Studies became the Academic Board with a broadened representation. These three bodies existed until the end of 1961.

The Senate was reconstituted but the changes were not far-reaching. This body was reconstituted by the New Zealand University Amendment Act 1926. In 1961 it consisted of:

(i) The persons holding office respectively as Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor of the University.

(ii) Four members appointed by the Governor-General as being persons possessed of a business knowledge, administrative capacity, and interested in University education.

(iii) Two members appointed by the Council of each of the constituent institutions, i.e., the University of Auckland, the Victoria University of Wellington, the University of Canterbury and Otago University.

The name of University was given to the three first-institutions by the New Zealand University Amendment Act 1957. Previously they had been known as Colleges and described as constituent colleges. Otago had retained the title of University from the earliest days, but, until 1957, it was one of the constituent colleges. It is now a constituent institution as are the other three Universities.

(iv) Five members elected by the General Court of Convocation.

The General Court of Convocation consisted of all the graduates of the University, including those who had graduated *ad eundem*, who had kept their names on the books of a District Court of Convocation. In addition, all professors of the University were members.

(v) Three members, being professors of the University, appointed by the Academic Board.

(vi) The Director of Education.

(vii) The academic heads of the constituent institutions.

(viii) One member appointed by the Board of Governors of Massey Agricultural College. Massey College was founded in 1926. Provision for its being represented on Senate was made in 1951.

(ix) One member appointed by the Board of Governors of Canterbury Agricultural College. Canterbury Agricultural College was founded in 1873. It obtained representation on Senate in 1951.

In addition, the Senate could co-opt one member. The Governor of the Reserve Bank was the co-opted member in 1961.

Except in the case of the Vice-Chancellor and of the four academic heads, no person employed by the Senate or the Council of any constituent institution or by the Board of Governors of one of the Agricultural Colleges was eligible for membership of Senate unless he was appointed by the Academic Board, or unless his emolument did not exceed £50 per annum. This last provision was enacted in 1929 to enable part-time teachers to be members of Senate.

Although the Vice-Chancellor and the four academic heads are academics in the sense that they are University graduates and have all, as at the present time, been engaged in university teaching, they are essentially administrators. True academic representation on the Senate was therefore three, or one-tenth of the total membership.

The Senate was the major, but not the supreme, governing body of the University. It was given the entire management of and superintendence over the affairs, concerns and property of the University. It was empowered to make statutes with respect to (inter alia) examination for degrees and the granting of degrees. But what might otherwise be supreme power was restricted by the following provisions:

(i) It could not make or alter any statute with reference to the requirements for matriculation until it had first received and considered any recommendations that might be made in that behalf by the Academic Board and by the Entrance Board, unless these Boards, having had reasonable opportunity to make such recommendations, had failed to do so.

(ii) It could not appoint examiners, or make or alter any statute with reference to any scheme of study or to examinations for degrees, diplomas, scholarships, bursaries or prizes, until it had first received and considered any recommendations that the Academic Board might make in the behalf, unless the Board, having had reasonable opportunity to make such recommendations, had failed so to do. The operation of this restriction was greatly modified by the creation of the Curriculum Committee.

(iii) It could not make or alter any statute with respect to the courses of study, the examination, and the educational and practical qualifications of candidates for admission as barristers and solicitors and generally, with respect to any matter relating to legal education, until it had first received and considered any recommendations the Academic Board or the Council of Legal Education might make on those matters, unless either body, having had a reasonable opportunity to make such recommendations, had failed so to do.

(iv) No honorary degree could be conferred by Senate on any person unless that person had been recommended therefor by the Academic Board.

The Academic Board, recommended by the 1925 Commission, was constituted by the 1926 Act. In 1961 it consisted of:—

(i) The Vice-Chancellor of the University.

(ii) The Chairman for the time being of the Professorial Board of each of the four constituent institutions. Normally this was the academic head of each institution.

(iii) Eight members elected by the professors of the University.

(iv) Two members of the Professorial Board of each constituent institution, appointed by the respective Professorial Boards.

(v) One member elected by the Professorial Board of Massey Agricultural College.

(vi) One member elected by the Professorial Board of the Canterbury Agricultural College.

(vii) Two members elected by persons holding office as lecturers in the constituent institutions and the Agricultural Colleges.

The Academic Board had power of its own motion or at the request of Senate to make recommendations to the Senate in respect of any matter affecting the University and in particular could make recommendations with respect to the appointment of examiners; to the grant or award of degrees, diplomas, scholarships, bursaries or prizes; to courses of study; and to the subject-matter and conduct of examinations. The Senate was empowered to delegate to the Board such powers of drawing up courses of study, of conducting examinations and of appointing examiners as it thought fit.

The University Entrance Board owed its existence to the Report of the 1925 Commission and the 1926 Act. In 1961, its members were:—

(i) The Vice-Chancellor of the University.

(ii) Three members appointed by the Minister of Education. These members were almost invariably officers of the Department, answerable immediately to the Director of Education and through him to the Minister. They could normally be expected to take the "departmental" line.

(iii) Six members elected by the Academic Board.

(iv) Three members appointed by the New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers' Association. They represented the "State" secondary schools.

(v) One member appointed by the Association of the Heads of the Registered Secondary Schools of New Zealand. He represented the "private" secondary schools.

Liaison officers from the four constituent institutions were invited to attend the Board's meetings as observers.

The Board's duty was to consider the curricula and courses of study at secondary schools and technical high schools in relation to the educational and other requirements for matriculation. It could also consider such other matters in relation to secondary education as might from time to time be referred to it by the Minister of Education or by the University Senate.

Of recent years, meetings of the Board were characterised by sharp differences of opinion between what might be called the University and the non-University elements respectively. Resolutions of the Board in many cases, and in all cases of controversial issues such as accrediting, were carried by the narrowest of margins — usually in

favour of the "departmental" line. The representatives of the Department and of the Schools could out-vote the Academic Board representatives if, as was usually the case, the Vice-Chancellor, in his capacity of chairman, was strictly impartial.

The recommendations of the Board went to the Academic Board and thence to Senate. Both bodies were reluctant to disagree with the decisions of the Entrance Board. The consequence was that, in practice, all questions relating to entrance to the University were decided, not by the University, but by the Education Department in conjunction with the representatives of the schools from which the entrants to the University came.

The 1925 Commission made some severe strictures on legal education in New Zealand. One of the most frequently quoted passages in its Report reads as follows:

> Legal practitioners have always been regarded as members of a learned profession, as, indeed, is shown by the customary courtesy of allusion to 'my learned friend'. It appears to us, that, unless a marked change is effected in the legal education provided in the Dominion, this term runs the risk of being regarded as a delicate sarcasm.

As a step towards remedying this state of affairs, the Commission recommended the setting up of a Council of Legal Education. This was done by the University Amendment Act 1930 and the Council came into existence in 1931. As originally constituted, it was a small body of six members; two judges, two practitioners and two deans of faculties of law. The two deans could not be expected to represent all the views of the four faculties of law, so a request was made to have all four faculties of law represented. The Law Society was agreable provided its representation was increased to four. It feared the risk of being out-voted. To ensure that at least one member of the Council would be a member of the Academic Board and of Senate, it was agreed that the Vice-Chancellor should be a member of the Council.

From 1956 to 1961, therefore, the constitution of the Council had been:

(i) Two Judges of the Supreme Court (one of whom could be the Chief Justice) appointed on the recommendation of the Chief Justice. Since its inception, the Chief Justice has always been a member of the Council.

(ii) Four practitioners appointed on the recommendation of the Council of the New Zealand Law Society.

(iii) The Deans of the faculties of Law in the four constituent institutions.

(iv) The Vice-Chancellor.

The Council had power of its own motion or at the request of the Senate or the Academic Board to make recommendations to Senate with respect to any matter relating to legal education. The Act provided for a copy of the Council's recommendations being sent to the Academic Board for the Board's comments. The Board might comment only. It could not reject or amend Council's recommendations. This last provision was enacted in 1956. Previously, the Council's recommendations had reached Senate in a mutilated condition after the various amendments passed by the Academic Board had been inserted. Some members of the Council felt that such a review of the Council's work hardly accorded with its dignity.

Post-War Developments

"The ramshackle machine", as one former Vice-Chancellor used to describe the University, continued to function reasonably satisfactorily with the agencies resulting from the Reichel-Tate Report, until after World War II. The large increase in the number of students, which resulted in each of the constituent institutions reaching the size (in numbers) of some English provincial universities, the desire for some degree of autonomy in the Colleges, as they then were, and above all, the realisation, as it appeared, that all the Colleges were bound, so far as degree structure and prescriptions were concerned, to the same pattern, resulted in murmurings of discontent, noticeable especially in the Academic Board. Why, for example, if Canterbury wanted an Honours degree at the Bachelor stage could it not have it, simply because Auckland did not want the same course? True, the 1926 Act had provided that "it shall not be necessary that the courses of study or methods of examinations prescribed for any degree or diploma shall be the same for each of the constituent colleges". But nobody seemed quite to know what this meant; and the Chancellor, a former Judge of the Supreme Court, gave it as his opinion that whatever it might mean, it did not mean that the requirements for a given degree could vary from College to College.

One consequence of the uniform system was that the Academic Board — twenty-five members — dealt with all the minutiae of degree

structures, examination requirements, prescriptions and all the other matters necessary to keep the machine functioning. And not all members were content to accept the advice of experts. One remembers an occasion on which a resolution of the Council of Legal Education, the joint product of the efforts of two judges, a King's Counsel, two professors of law and a leading barrister, was torn to shreds by the Academic Board, not to be remoulded any nearer to the Council of Legal Education's desire.

Something had to be done to ensure that all this detailed work did not go to the Academic Board and to allow for some measure of autonomy in the constituent institutions. That something was the creation of the Curriculum Committee, effected by the Amendment Act of 1954. The Curriculum Committee consisted of:

(i) the Vice-Chancellor;

(ii) the academic head of each of the constituent institutions;

(iii) the Director of Education;

(iv) one professor from each constituent institution appointed by Senate on the recommendation of the Academic Board;

(v) two persons appointed by Senate, each being a person who has had experience in University administration but who was not a member of the staff of any constituent institution or agricultural college.

The Senate had power to delegate to the Curriculum Committee the power to approve course regulations relating to general courses of study which any Council or Board of Governors of an Agricultural College desired to make. The Senate exercised this power of delegation. While the delegation remained, the Curriculum Committee had the power of approving any degree structure, applicable to a constituent institution, or an agricultural college, which that institution or college desired.

The result was that, subject to the approval of the Curriculum Committee, any constituent institution could frame its own degree structure, determine the subjects for any degree and generally exercise all the powers it could exercise were it an autonomous university. The approval of the Curriculum Committee to proposals sent forward by the Councils and Board of Governors was readily given. The

Committee exercised a general supervisory jurisdiction, but once it was satisfied that the particular proposal submitted was sound academically, it gave that proposal its blessing.

A saving section in the Act provided that where any question arose before the Curriculum Committee as to whether any course of study should be approved by the Committee, any three members of the Committee might require the question to be referred to the Senate for determination. In other words, any three members could exercise the veto in the sense that it could require the proposal to be discussed by Senate. It was not exercised at any time.

The Act of 1954 (sometimes referred to as the Curriculum Committee Statute), coupled with the Act of 1957 (giving the title of "University" to the constituent institutions), paved the way to complete autonomy. While there remained many administrative matters which required adjustment, on the academic side autonomy was just round the corner. One particular consequence of the 1954 Act was that the Academic Board was no longer concerned with matters of detail, except in so far as they were contained in reports of the Entrance Board or the Council of Legal Education. The Academic Board was able to devote the major part of its time to matters of high policy, including the arrangements for its own demise.

The Hughes Parry Committee

In July 1959 the Minister of Education appointed a committee consisting of Sir David Hughes Parry, late Director of the Institute of Advanced Legal Studies, University of London; Dean Geoffrey C. Andrew, Deputy to the President of the University of British Columbia; and Dr Roy W. Harman, late General Manager and Director, Colonial Sugar Refining Co. Ltd. and late Chairman, New Zealand Council for Technical Education — a distinguished New Zealand graduate in Science — to report on University Education in New Zealand. This committee, which reported in December 1959, accepted the fact that the University of New Zealand should be dissolved and its functions shared between the four autonomous universities and the two agricultural colleges and a central University Grants Committee with which would be associated the Universities Entrance Board, a curriculum sub-committee and a post-graduate scholarships and research grants sub-committee.

The Grants Committee was to consist of a full-time Chairman and seven part-time members, four of whom would be lay persons, the other three being professors or teachers in the Universities. The members of the Grants Committee would be appointed by the Governor-General from a list submitted by the Universities. A new Entrance Board was recommended, its membership to be a Chairman, appointed by the Grants Committee from its members or the universities, five University teachers and five persons appointed by the Minister of Education from his departmental officers or the schools. A curriculum sub-committee of the Grants Committee was recommended with the duty of:

"(a) advising the Grants Committee and the universities on any proposal by any University to establish a new faculty or a new professorial chair or a new department of study;

(b) considering any difficulties involving the equivalence of courses and the transfer of students from one university to another; and

(c) receiving and, where appropriate, commenting on proposals for any university to institute new courses of study."

This sub-committee was seen to be necessary for a period of approximately five years and thereafter the committee stated: "the Universities' freedom to plan their degrees and courses should be unrestricted". It was recognised that the functions of the curriculum sub-committee would be advisory and that the Grants Committee would be able, by its control over finance, to control undesirable or unnecessary academic development. The post-graduate scholarships and research grants sub-committee was, as its title suggests, to award post-graduate scholarships and research grants from funds allocated by the Grants Committee for this purpose.

Each university was to have a Council consisting of seventeen members (four of whom would be appointed by the Professorial Board), which would be the supreme governing body, and a Professorial Board which would have the right to be consulted and a duty to advise on all academic issues before the Council made its final decision.

The New Legislation

The legislation enacted in 1961 consisted of eight Acts: the Universities Act 1961, the University of Otago Amendment Act 1961, the University of Canterbury Act 1961, the University of Auckland Act 1961, the Victoria University of Wellington Act 1961, Lincoln College Act 1961, the Massey College Act 1961 and the Law Practitioners Amendment Act 1961. The explanatory note prepared for the information of members of parliament stated: "The Universities Bill provides for the dissolution of the University of New Zealand and the transfer of some of its functions, including the power to confer degrees and diplomas to individual universities, most of its remaining functions being vested in the University Grants Committee." As will be shown, this statement was misleading in that the only new power granted to the universities by the legislation was the power to grant their own degrees and any new diplomas created by them. Most of the remaining powers and functions of the University of New Zealand devolve upon the Grants Committee or one of its sub-committees.

The main features of the 1961 legislation are these:

(1) There is a University Grants Committee consisting of a full-time chairman and seven part-time members, as recommended by the Hughes Parry Committee. All applications by the Universities for capital or recurrent grants must be made through the University Grants Committee. It seems that the Grants Committee will not be allocated monies for distribution by it but will make a submission to the Government in respect of each application. No substantial departure from the earlier arrangements under which the former Grants Committee's applications were processed by the Department of Education and Treasury is likely to occur. In effect, the Grants Committee has become a department of government without the privileges of access to other departmental reports. The Grants Committee has not only been given financial powers; it has also secured functions in relation to purely academic questions, formerly exercised by the Senate and the Academic Board of the University of New Zealand. For instance, the approval of the Grants Committee is necessary to any statute of a university dealing with the enrolment of extramural students or to any statute limiting the enrolment of students because of insufficiency of accommodation or of teachers. Its course regulations must be approved either by the Curriculum Committee or the University Grants Committee. The Grants Committee has retained control over the scale

of fees or stipends for examiners, assessors or moderators and has retained control over the balances of examination fees from which scholarships have in the past been awarded. It will continue to award post-graduate scholarships from these funds.

The New Zealand universities are almost wholly dependent upon Government Grants made from the vote: Education, controlled by the Minister of Education. The incomes of the universities from government grants show some variations, the University of Otago at which are located the Medical and Dental Schools being perhaps the most generously treated. In addition, the income of that University from endowments is greater than that of any other university. The University of Auckland in 1961 had an income, apart from capital grants, of approximately £770,000 of which all but £90,000 was received in direct grants from the Government. The only other major source of income — fees — brought in £67,000.

At the end of 1961, apparently on the advice of the new Grants Committee, the Government announced substantial increases in the amounts payable to students with bursaries. Such increases had been recommended by the Hughes Parry Committee. At the same time, the Government decided that the annual grants to the Universities would be reduced. The Universities were informed that they were authorised to treble tuition fees if they wished to do so. In fact, the universities had no option if they wished to maintain income at 1961 levels. No one could criticise the decision to increase fees which had remained unchanged since 1928 and bore no relationship to rising university expenses. The government decision has, however, introduced an element of uncertainty into university financing in that the effect of the fee increases cannot be predicted. One result is that the Universities will be less dependent on government grants. It is expected that the University of Auckland will derive some £662,000 from the Government in 1962 and fees are estimated to produce almost £200,000. Capital grants, negotiated through the Grants Committee, will be in addition to these amounts.

(2) The Curriculum Committee consists of the Chairman of the University Grants Committee, the academic heads of six university institutions, the Director of Education and one professor appointed by the Grants Committee from each of the four universities. Whereas the Hughes Parry Committee recommended that a committee of this

kind should function for only five years, the legislation imposes no such limitation. Each university must submit to the Curriculum Committee for approval any proposed course regulations and, if the regulations involve an academic development likely to require a special grant, the approval of the University Grants Committee to the academic development must first be obtained. In considering course regulations, the Curriculum Committee must have regard to the comparative equivalence of courses for degrees and other academic qualifications. These provisions are likely to result in the Grants Committee or the Curriculum Committee restraining academic developments thought to be desirable by a university and to discourage any departure from existing course regulations, which are now more or less the same in each institution.

(3) The Universities Entrance Board consists of a Chairman appointed by the University Grants Committee, five persons appointed by that committee from the academic staffs of the universities and five persons appointed by the Minister from his Departmental officers or from teachers in secondary schools. The primary function of the Entrance Board is to establish and maintain a common educational system as a pre-requisite for University entrance. It will therefore be impossible for any University to prescribe an additional entrance examination.

(4) The Research Committee consists of the Chairman of the University Grants Committee, the Permanent Secretary of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, five University teachers appointed by the Grants Committee and such other persons as the Grants Committee may appoint. Its primary function is to disburse the sum allocated to the Grants Committee for research within the universities.

(5) The Scholarships Sub-committee will award post-graduate and travelling scholarships from funds controlled by the Grants Committee. The Grants Committee is to receive the net balances of the examination fees paid by students to each university, that is, the total amount of examination fees paid less the cost of the examinations.

The university legislation was drafted in the office of the Grants Committee, which undoubtedly influenced its provisions. Some of the universities expressed strong disapproval of the draft legislation when it was circulated, their objections centering on the powers of the

Curriculum Committee and the functions in relation to academic matters conferred upon the Grants Committee and, in particular, upon its chairman. The Academic Board and Senate were able to secure some amendments to the original draft, but its main features were not affected by these changes.

The Law Practitioners Amendment Act retained the Council of Legal Education, constituted in much the same manner as formerly. But, whereas prior to 1962 it was part of the university machinery, it is now a professional body responsible for determining the qualifications for admission as barristers and solicitors. It is therefore surprising, and from the university point of view disquieting, to have the Council of Legal Education possessed of the power to determine the course of study in which the universities must provide tuition. Only if the Curriculum Committee releases it from this obligation, may a University fail to provide courses prescribed by the Council of Legal Education. It is to be hoped that the Committee's approval of the non-inclusion of any subject will readily be given if the University lacks the staff to provide degree as well as professional courses or if the course prescribed by the Council is unsuitable for inclusion in a University curriculum.

It was the expectation of most university teachers that the dissolution of the University of New Zealand would remove the remaining limitations on the autonomy of the constituent universities and that they would be granted powers commensurate with their responsibilities and their titles. The general intention of the Hughes Parry report was to secure for them such autonomy and such powers after a transitional period had passed. The legislation enacted runs counter to the intention of the Hughes Parry Report in specific detail and in spirit. It might do active harm to the academic growth and maturity of New Zealand. Its effect is to retain the restrictions of the federal system which had notoriously outworn its usefulness. The legislation was apparently drafted out of the belief that academic institutions are by definition irresponsible and require to be supervised by the wisdom of those who are remote from the actual business of making a university work. Those who have this task know that the Universities in New Zealand are growing so fast and in so many ways that they cannot be confined within the narrow structure of an academic crêche. The central machinery created by this legislation will either operate restrictively or through sheer pressure of work will resolve itself into a series of

expensive rubber stamps. In either case, it will encourage the irresponsibilities it is primarily designed to prevent.

At the University level, the picture is more helpful. Though the University Councils have been expanded beyond the membership recommended by the Hughes Parry Committee, the academic element is large enough to make an effective contribution and, on academic issues, to be decisive. If the central machinery withers away — though there is nothing at present to suggest that it will — the universities will secure what is now by law withheld — control over their own affairs.

NOTICE OF PERSONS AVAILABLE FOR APPOINTMENT

German (native speaker), M. A., educated in Germany and America. Teaching experience, including advanced German and nineteenth-century literature and language laboratory. Can help out in elementary French and Spanish (taught in Spain). Available September 1962. Replies to C.A.U.T. National Office, Room 603 Commonwealth Building, 77 Metcalfe Street, Ottawa, Ontario.

NOTICE OF APPLICATION FOR AFFILIATION FROM NOTRE DAME UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, NELSON, B.C.

The Faculty Association at Notre Dame University College, Nelson, B.C. has made formal application for affiliation with C.A.U.T.

A Sub-Committee on Affiliation, to consider the application and report to Council, has been set up under the Chairmanship of: —

Professor Henry Kreisel,
Dept. of English,
University of Alberta,
Edmonton, Alta.

Any Association or member who wishes to present evidence or opinion regarding the admission of Notre Dame University College to the C.A.U.T. should communicate with Professor Kreisel before April 1st.

NOTICE OF POSITIONS VACANT*

Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, Newfoundland. Department of English Language and Literature. For 1 September 1962, appointments will be made in the ranks of Lecturer, Assistant Professor and Associate Professor. One appointment will be made in Linguistics, for which Newfoundland offers unique opportunites for research. Applications, with a full *curriculum vitae,* a recent photograph, a statement of the applicant's interests and the names of three referees, should be received not later than 28 February 1962 by E. R. Seary, Department of English Language and Literature, to whom referees' letters of recommendation should be addressed directly without waiting for a further request.

Mount Allison University requires the services of a Lecturer in Chemistry at the Ph.D. level whose special field is either physical or inorganic chemistry. He will be required to carry on research as well as teach and may be asked to teach one or two subjects outside his own particular specialty.

Anyone interested should write to the Head of Chemistry Department, Mount Allison University, Sackville, N.B.

Nova Scotia Technical College, Halifax, N.S. Department of Civil Engineering invites applications for a new appointment of Assistant Professor or Associate Professor to teach undergraduate courses and to conduct research in the fields of strength of materials, structural design and allied subjects. Applicants should have a Master's or higher degree. Salary according to qualifications and experience. Applications to be submitted to Dr. G. G. Meyerhof, Department of Civil Engineering.

Department of Mechanical Engineering invites applications for a new appointment of Assistant Professor or Associate Professor to teach undergraduate courses in thermodynamics and to develop a graduate programme in this field. Applicants should have a Master's or higher degree. Salary according to qualifications and experience. Applications

*The *Bulletin* carries advertisements of staff vacancies free of charge. Advertisements of the availability of persons for appointment are carried at the usual rates. Advertisements should be sent to the C.A.U.T. National Office, Room 603 Commonwealth Building, 77 Metcalfe Street, Ottawa, Ontario.

to be submitted to Prof. M. L. Baker, Department of Mechanical Engineering.

School of Architecture invites applications for a new position of Assistant Professor or Associate Professor to teach undergraduate courses in either of the following fields:—

(a) Architecture and Art and the socio-cultural context from which it emerges.

or

(b) Building Construction and Building Technology.

Salary and rank dependent on qualifications. Applications should be submitted to Professor D. Shadbolt, Director, School of Architecture.

Queen's University. Department of Geography. For appointment beginning *either* 1 September 1962 *or* 1 September 1963, a Lecturer or Assistant Professor with specialization in the geomorphology of unglaciated regions and soils. Research interest required. Beginning salary $5,500 to $7,000, depending on qualifications. Applications in full by 1 March 1962 to R. I. Ruggles, Head, Department of Geography, Queen's University, Kingston.

Sir George Williams University, Montreal. Department of Engineering. Applications are invited for a teaching post in Electrical Engineering. Minimum requirement a Master's degree. Successful applicant will be expected to take part in planning curriculum and plant for a new degree programme. Rank and salary dependent on qualifications. Applications to Jack Bordan, Chairman, Department of Engineering.

Victoria College, Victoria, B.C. Department of Mathematics. For 1 September 1962, an Instructor and an Assistant or Associate Professor.

Department of Modern Languages. For 1 September 1962, two Instructors in French; and an Assistant Professor of French, specializing in the eighteenth century.

Department of Philosophy. For 1 September 1962, an Assistant Professor.

Department of Sociology. For 1 September 1962, an Instructor or Assistant Professor.

Applications for these seven appointments by 10 February 1962 to the appropriate departmental heads.

University of Alberta, Calgary. Department of Political Economy. For 1 September 1962, an Assistant or Associate Professor of Political Science, at a salary ranging between $7,500 and $10,000, depending upon qualifications and experience. Applicants should be prepared to instruct in fundamental undergraduate courses with a strong emphasis on comparative government.

For 1 September 1962, an Assistant or Associate Professor of Economics, at a salary ranging between $7,500 and $10,000, depending upon qualifications and experience. Applicants should be prepared to instruct in money and banking and in public finance, or in international trade.

Applications for these two positions, including a recent photograph, a *curriculum vitae,* transcripts of records from universites where degrees were obtained and the names of three references, should reach the Department by 1 February 1962.

University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba. Department of Economics, Sociology and Anthropology. Applications are invited for the position of Assistant Professor in Economics. Appointment for September 1st, 1962. Salary $7,000.00. Preference given to applicants whose special field is price and distribution theory. Training and teaching experience in statistics is also desirable.

Applications invited for the position of Associate Professor in Sociology or Anthropology, and for the position of Assistant Professor in Sociology or Anthropology. Appointments for September 1, 1962. Minimum salary for rank of Associate Professor is $9,000.00 and for Assistant Professor $7,000.00

Applicants for these three positions to send *curriculum vitae,* a recent photograph, and the names of three referees to: W. J. Waines, Vice-President (Academic) University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan. Department of Geological Sciences. Geophysicist wanted for 1962-63. Will involve teaching undergraduate and graduate courses and research. Salary and rank dependent upon qualifications. Applications giving particulars of academic and other qualifications and experience, names and addresses of references, should be sent to the Head, Department of Geological Sciences.

College of Pharmacy. Applications are invited for openings in the departments of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Pharmaceutics and Pharmacognosy. Candidates should have a Ph.D. degree in the area of specialization. Major duties will be teaching undergraduate classes and directing graduate research. The starting salary and rank will depend upon experience and qualifications. Applications, including a *curriculum vitae*, list of publications and the names of three referees should be submitted to:

DEAN W. C, MACAULAY,
College of Pharmacy,
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada.

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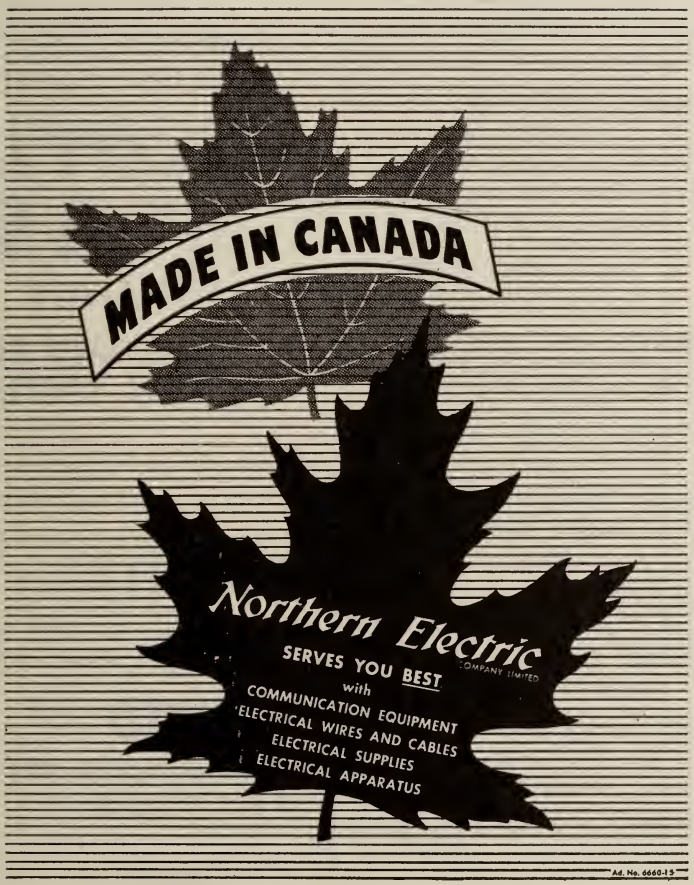
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